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**Highlights**

- establishing Austria's most comprehensive database of weather-triggered hazards
- Creation of an 'event space' (1950-2015) comprising more than 20000 hazards
- Objective derivation of hazard-inducing weather sequences (climate indices)
- Characteristic linkage between weather sequences, process categories and regions
- Demonstration of general applicability across a wide topographical range
- Contribution to public protection through improving early warning strategies

# Derivation of canonical total-sequences triggering landslides and floodings in complex terrain

Katharina Enigl<sup>a,b</sup>, Christoph Matulla<sup>a,\*</sup>, Matthias Schlögl<sup>a,c</sup>, Franz Schmid<sup>d</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Climate Impact Team, Climate Research Branch, Zentralanstalt für Meteorologie und Geodynamik, Vienna, Austria*

<sup>b</sup>*Institute of Meteorology and Geophysics, University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria*

<sup>c</sup>*Institute of Mountain Risk Engineering, University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Vienna, Austria*

<sup>d</sup>*Federal Ministry of Sustainability and Tourism (BMNT), Vienna, Austria*

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## Abstract

Floodings and landslides are amongst the most devastating damage-processes worldwide. Associated risk levels are particularly high in topographically complex terrain. Along with the increase in climate-change induced extreme-events, research devoted to the identification of so-called Climate Indices (CIs) describing weather phenomena triggering hazard-occurrences and intensities gain rising emphasis.

In this study we accomplish the first-time unification of the three most comprehensive cadastres on weather-induced hazard-processes, compiled and maintained by federal authorities. The therefrom resulting ‘event space’ stretches seven decades from 1950 onwards and contains more than 20.000 hazard occurrences, classified into different process-categories. Event data are analyzed together with a high-quality, daily-based dataset providing tem-

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\*Corresponding author

*Email address:* christoph.matulla@zamg.ac.at (Christoph Matulla)

peratures and precipitation totals on a 1 km grid across the Austrian part of the European Alps.

On the resulting unprecedented extent of extreme-weather triggered hazard-processes and gridded weather observations we are able to examine the hypothesis that daily sequences of precipitation-totals preceding damage-events allow for detecting temporal weather sequences uniquely allocatable to various hazard-categories in three orographically distinct regions in the European Alps. We pursue this research aim by analyzing for each hazard-category its quadratic form representing the physics contained in the observations. Resulting eigen-directions, invariant under its inherent second order tensor, are the sought-for total-sequences (CIs) and hence reject the alternative hypothesis. Therefore, precipitation total-sequences can be uniquely assigned to hazard categories within each region.

It is important to note that findings based on this novel, objective approach do not contradict, but rather add to attained research achievements by introducing this new perspective on the subject.

Obtained CIs have substantial potential in research and applications. In civil defense, safeguarding critical infrastructure, early warning systems and the development of sustainable protection strategies, findings are in implementation by responsible decision-makers and in intense discussion with the European Freight and Logistics Leaders' Forum.

*Keywords:*

precipitation-totals, weather-sequences, hazard-processes, objectively determined climate indices, event space, Austria

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## 1 1. Introduction

2 Extreme weather induced hazards have always been substantial threats  
3 and will, in the wake of climate change, pose major challenges to societies  
4 particularly in complex terrain. Having remained constant on high levels  
5 for about a decade, global mean temperatures are again on the rise since  
6 some years by now. Unlike global temperatures that increased about 1 de-  
7 gree Celsius over the past 150 years, those in European Alps rose twice as  
8 much (Auer et al., 2007). Natural hazards-processes accompanying this rapid  
9 change present significant challenges to those responsible for civil protection.  
10 Albeit averages are important, the focus of this paper is on changes in extreme  
11 events, as their impact on society, ecosystems and socio-economic structures  
12 is far more significant (Katz & Brown, 1992; Schlögl & Laaha, 2017).

13 This endeavor is challenging, because extreme events are rare and, hence,  
14 data should be of high spatial-temporal density and quality as well as stretch  
15 many decades back in time. Temporal extent is of outstanding impor-  
16 tance because three decades e.g. are already required for determining climate  
17 (mean, variance - i.e. lowest moments, WMO, 2017). Hence, describing rare  
18 events far off the averages requires substantially more observations. Unfortu-  
19 nately, both prerequisites – to be concerned in case of weather observations  
20 as well as hazard-occurrences (meaning when- and wherever hazards occur,  
21 weather observations should be on hand) – are nearly ever met. Therefore  
22 it is important to establish a solid data basis allowing for further develop-  
23 ment as it was carried out e.g. in Portugal (Pereira et al., 2018) and Italy.  
24 Guzzetti et al. (1994, 2007, 2008), e.g. searched the technical and scientific  
25 literature to establish a first and further developed catalog containing rainfall

26 events (mostly in Italy) that partly resulted in landslides. On that basis the  
27 authors compiled a collection of information on rainfall-induced landslides  
28 in Italy comprising 753 precipitation events causing landslides. Concerning  
29 landslides Brunetti et al. (2010) managed to add detailed or rough location  
30 as well as time or period of occurrence. Regarding associated precipitation  
31 events the authors provided information on averaged intensity and duration,  
32 too. By using two statistical methods and various further subsidiary informa-  
33 tion (e.g. class within the Köppen scheme, main rock types). They were able  
34 to identify thresholds indicating potential precipitation caused landslides for  
35 a region in central Italy and Italy as a whole. Melillo et al. (2015) pointed  
36 out inconsistencies corresponding to rainfall reconstruction methods used and  
37 proposed a procedure estimating precipitation conditions potentially trigger-  
38 ing landslides in an objective and reproducible way. Therefore they utilized  
39 229 landslide observations and rain gauge data in Sicily between 2002 and  
40 2012. Based on these studies, Peruccacci et al. (2017) investigated (mainly  
41 shallow) landslides and defined new precipitation thresholds for Italy and 26  
42 regions. Mostbauer et al. (2018) analysed the temporally varying roles of  
43 rainfall, snowmelt and soil moisture on debris flow initiation by combining a  
44 rainfall-runoff model with with documented debris flow events. In a recent  
45 effort, Prenner et al. (2019) investigated trigger characteristics of torrential  
46 flows in alpine regions based on 360 observed debris flow and fluvial flood  
47 events. These studies show that despite the lack of actual observation (mak-  
48 ing it appear almost impossible to establish precipitation – landslide rela-  
49 tionships), exploitation of subsidiary information (e.g. topography, Köppen  
50 classes), rainfall reconstructions and known sum-intensity relations can be

51 used to derive rainfall thresholds indicating degrees of landslide-risk impor-  
52 tant for public protection. All this research serves a good example for the  
53 success of continued efforts.

54 In the current study, however, we approach the subject from the different  
55 perspective: Focusing on landslides and floodings, we examine the hypothesis  
56 whether it is possible to derive characteristic, local-scale precipitation total-  
57 sequences for various hazard-processes prior threat-occurrences in different  
58 regions in the European Alps.

59 From an orographical and climatological point of view, Austria can be  
60 separated into three distinct provinces. Northern parts extending from the  
61 foothills of the Alpine ridge across the River Danube northwards (henceforth  
62 summarized as: ‘Northern Lowlands’, NL) are geomorphologically character-  
63 ized by lowlands interspersed by flat hills. Geologically, NL can be further  
64 separated into the Bohemian Mass in its North, mainly consisting of granite  
65 and migmatite, and its South, dominated by classic sediments (gravel, sand,  
66 clay) of the Molasse zone. Climatologically, NL is generally influenced by  
67 northern and north-western air-flows.

68 The southeastern basins (‘Southern Basin Chain’, SB) comprising, for  
69 instance, the Styrian Basin and the Klagenfurt Basins, are defined by flat  
70 topography and low-altitude mountains. SB mainly consists of classic sedi-  
71 ments, partly of mica slate and volcanic rocks. Weather conditions are mainly  
72 controlled by air-masses advected from the south and southeast, as well as  
73 occasionally by Vb pattern induced through Genua-cyclogenesis.

74 The remaining area, summarized here as ‘Alpine Territory’ (AT), is sig-  
75 nified by large differences in elevation, ranging from low altitude basins of

76 only somewhat more than hundred metres above mean sea level and deep  
77 valleys to high mountains of over 3500 m. Aside from its geomorphological  
78 appearance, it is marked by diversity in terms of geology as well. AT ex-  
79 hibits different types of rocks, represented by Flysch Zone and Limestone  
80 Alps northwards and a mixture of volcanites as well as various slate and  
81 gneiss groups in its southern parts. The Alpine crest acts as a meteorological  
82 divide, whereby Northern and Central Alps form a barrier for northwestern  
83 airflows. Therefore mean annual precipitation totals reach more than 3000  
84 mm. Inner alpine valleys such as the Inntal, the Ötztal and the Mölltal are  
85 shielded by their surroundings and therefore particularly dry (Matulla, 2005;  
86 Schwarb et al., 2001).

87 Our research is devoted to crucial subject areas in public protection  
88 and safeguarding critical infrastructure against damaging events caused by  
89 weather-driven threats. We aim at supporting decision-makers as well as  
90 European Freight and Logistic Industries establishing sustainable adaption  
91 strategies, thus fostering society's ability to cope with future risk potentials.  
92 This is pursued by objectively determine CIs, applying findings to downscaled  
93 future climate-change projections forced by different pathways of mankind  
94 (RCPs, van Vuuren et al., 2011) and the using decision-theory for decisions  
95 under risk.

96 In meteorology, extreme events are often defined as states exceeding high  
97 percentiles of atmospheric quantities. In case hazards, damages, fatalities  
98 and public protection are concerned, extreme events are associated with at-  
99 mospheric pattern jeopardizing citizens, ecosystems and infrastructure assets.  
100 Descriptions related to the latter are called Climate Indices – CIs.(see e.g.



101 Schlögl & Matulla, 2018; Matulla et al., 2017a).

102 Across Europe's complex structured alpine terrain, floodings, landslides,  
103 heat and drought bear the largest share of losses, totaling up to one billion  
104 Euro per year in Austria alone (Steininger et al., 2016). Therefore, changes  
105 in threat-intensities and -frequencies are a subject of growing concern. Con-  
106 sequently, gaining knowledge on weather-processes triggering hazards (i.e.  
107 deriving CIs) is the key for establishing successful and sustainable protection  
108 strategies. For every hazard-triggering process described by a CI, pertaining  
109 future evolutions can be derived from downscaled climate change projections  
110 corresponding to different pathways of mankind. Once these future spatial-  
111 temporal CI-appearances (in terms of occurrence frequency and intensity)  
112 are on hand, they are the cornerstone for developing sustainable protection  
113 programs suitably adapted to each pathway.

114 CIs are of outstanding importance for their central role in studies on nat-  
115 ural hazards, too, whose validity directly depends on the quality of utilized  
116 CIs. The more accurately CIs represent hazard-inducing processes, the more  
117 reliable results obtained with them are. We deduce CIs from meteorological  
118 observations pertaining in space and time to hazard- occurrences on record.  
119 This approach has not been explored yet for its high demand on observations.  
120 Generally, datasets on extreme events are short, unchecked and of small ex-  
121 tent and, thus, under circumstances to date this approach would have been  
122 unsuitable. However, the composition of our consortium consisting of fed-  
123 eral officials responsible for public protection (i.e. decision-makers), climate  
124 researches from the weather service and young researchers from universi-  
125 ties enabled the first-time unification of Austria's three most comprehensive

126 cadastral on hazards and the utilization of high-quality datasets. This setup  
127 permitted the establishment of an ‘event space’ providing an unprecedented  
128 scope of threat occurrences enabling the derivation of CIs from observations.

129 The present paper is dedicated to the objective determination of CIs  
130 related to several hazard-categories of landslides and floodings in topograph-  
131 ically distinct regions stretching across Austria’s complex territory. Section  
132 2 ‘Data and Methods’ presents the three, in terms of spatial-temporal ex-  
133 tent and the amount of hazard-observations on record, most comprehensive  
134 Austrian cadastral as well as the meteorological data-base utilized. Besides  
135 that, we present a concise review of the methods just serves to recall their  
136 analysis-techniques applied here. Section 3 ‘Results and Discussion’ briefly  
137 describes the creation of ‘event space’ and discusses the identified canon-  
138 ical total-sequences triggering different hazard-categories in three distinct  
139 regions. The paper is closed by an outlook given in section 4.

## 140 **2. Data and Methods**

### 141 *2.1. Data*

142 Data used in this study are of two kind. On one hand there are long-  
143 term records of damage-processes collected by federal agencies in compliance  
144 with their legal mandate. Most other poolings of such kind developed much  
145 later when damages induced by extreme-weather increasingly raised public  
146 attention and political awareness in the early 2000s. On the other hand we  
147 have high-quality, daily weather observations processed on grids provided by  
148 the Austrian national weather service.

149 Below presented governmental cadastral follow grown labels oriented to

150 the agencies' obligations but chosen in such way that they can be grouped  
151 into internationally common categories. However, since the number of per-  
152 taining observations is of outstanding significance allowing to objectively  
153 identify extreme-weather processes driving hazards to the public, we will  
154 start therefrom.

155 The *Austrian Service for Torrent and Avalanche Control* ('Wildbach-  
156 und Lawinenverbauung', 'WLV'), founded in 1884, is a subordinate agency  
157 of the Austrian Federal Ministry of Sustainability and Tourism (BMNT).  
158 WLV traditionally deals with torrents and avalanches, which mainly occur  
159 within the Alpine Territory (AT, see Fig. 1). Amongst WLV's tasks are:  
160 declaration of danger zones potentially yielding settlement-prohibitions, civil  
161 protection management and providing advisory capacity towards climate-  
162 change adaption. These (and many more) responsibilities require diligently  
163 collected, long-term records of hazard-processes that are compiled in the  
164 'WLV-cadastre' (WLV, 2017). It covers *fluvial sediment transport* processes  
165 (see Tab. 1), which are floods containing amounts of solids up to one fifth  
166 their volume (3603 events on record); *debris-flow-like processes* – as before,  
167 but with a fraction of solid material exceeding one fifth (766); *mud flows*,  
168 carrying solid contents exceeding 50% (1927); *flooding* (1976); and *surface*  
169 *water* (16).

170 Landslides are distinguished into *rotational slides*, which are movements  
171 exhibiting a rotation about an axis parallel the slopes (202); *translational*  
172 *slides*, i.e. slides with negligible rotation (100); *earth- and debris-flows*, where  
173 the material sliding down is subjected to strong deformation (319); *shallow*  
174 *landslides* (162); *individual blocks* with block sizes up to 1 meter (58); *large*

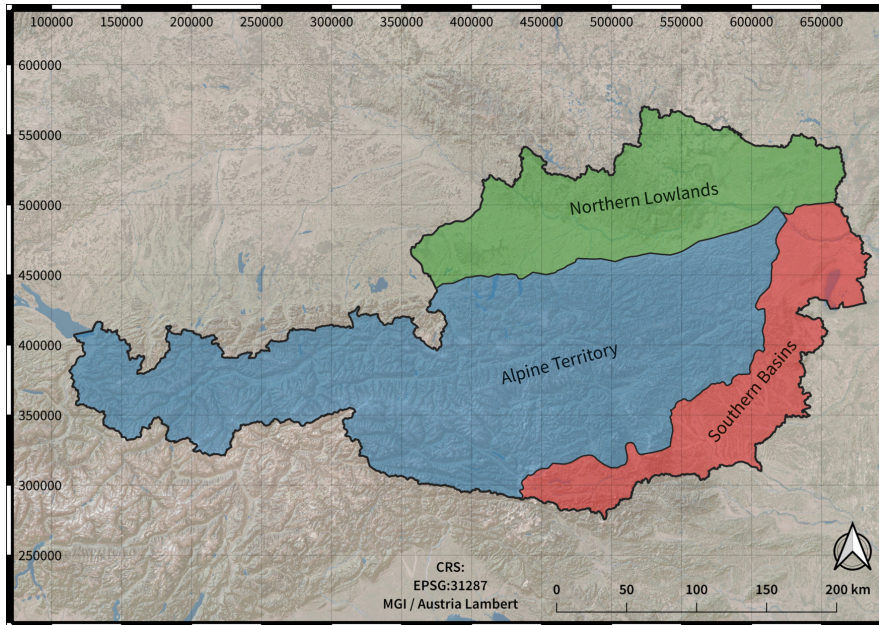


Figure 1: Austrian parts of the European Alps and the three regions employed in this study.

175 *blocks* with sizes exceeding one meter (239); as well as *rock creeps* (2).

176 Founded in 1849, the *Geological Survey of Austria* ('Geologische Bundes-  
 177 sanstalt', 'GBA') is a subordinate agency of Austrian Federal Ministry for  
 178 Education, Science and Research (BMBWF). Fields of activity encompass ge-  
 179 ological mapping, process-monitoring and issuing of maps featuring high-risk  
 180 areas for planning purposes, whereby emphasis is on the foothills of the Alps,  
 181 on lowlands (Northern Lowlands, NL) and basins / Southern Basin Chain,  
 182 SB, see Fig. 1). Just as in case of WLV, the accomplishment of GBA's gov-  
 183 ernmental obligations requires a highly dependable, comprehensive, and sta-  
 184 tistically robust data basis. Such sound, conscientiously collected, long-term  
 185 records of damage-events are compiled in the 'GBA-cadastre' (Geologische

186 Bundesanstalt, 2017). Therefore various observation systems are employed.  
187 Amongst these are, for example, remote-sensing, field surveys, geographical  
188 photographs, systematic expert-inventories of indexed areas, reports from the  
189 population, digitizing historical archives (from e.g. monasteries). To avoid  
190 inhomogeneities, which may result from different formats, quality criteria  
191 and degrees of information content, GBA devotes a substantial fraction of  
192 its resources to maintaining an extensive quality assurance program to en-  
193 suring just that. GBA-records used in this study start in 1950 and cover (see  
194 Tab. 1) the following gravitational processes: *slides* (2201), *flows* (104), *falls*  
195 (898), *general mass movement* (52), *mass movement in loose rock* (28), and  
196 *complex large-scale movement* (37).

197 The *Austrian National Weather and Geophysical Service* ('Zentralanstalt  
198 für Meteorologie und Geodynamik', ZAMG) was founded in 1851 and is  
199 a subordinate agency of BMBWF. Its legal duties cover the operation of  
200 the meteorological observation network, the warning of citizens in case of  
201 hazardous weather, supporting disaster management and advancing current  
202 states of knowledge in the realm of meteorology and climate through indepen-  
203 dently carried out research. Amongst its various weather datasets, ZAMG  
204 maintains since 1948 an archive of media reports on weather-driven damage-  
205 processes according to given procedures. 'VIOLA' (VIolent Weather Assess-  
206 ment) (Matulla et al., 2017b) contains a digitized version of this archive,  
207 organized in line with legal duties. It's group-definitions are trans-nationally  
208 compatible and allow by simple aggregation conformity with internationally  
209 used categories. Here we use *continuous rain* (337), *heavy precipitation events*  
210 (*2351*), *thunderstorms* (2290), *surface water* (1761), *slides* (665), *flows* (656),

211 *falls* (180), and *heat and drought* (528).

212 Weather data are taken from **SPARTACUS**, the ‘Spatiotemporal Re-  
213 analysis Dataset for Climate in Austria’ (Hiebl & Frei, 2015, 2017). It pro-  
214 vides high-quality, daily temperatures and precipitation totals from 1961  
215 onwards on a 1 km grid across Austria. SPARTACUS has been generated  
216 in an international collaboration from irregularly distributed weather sta-  
217 tions maintained by ZAMG, has already found application in several stud-  
218 ies (Duethmann & Blöschl, 2018; Schroerer & Kirchengast, 2018) and is op-  
219 erationally kept up-to-date at ZAMG. Precipitation totals throughout the  
220 decade prior SPARTACUS (from 1951 to 1960) are taken from the so-called  
221 GPARD6 dataset (Hofstätter et al., 2015), which provides daily totals at a  
222 less highly resolved grid of 6 km spacing.

Table 1: Overview of process types and number of events by data source. The period covered from each data source is 1950 until 2017. Please note that hazard-processes are written in lower case.

Source	processes	Events
WLV	individual block (Einzelblock)	58
	large block (Blockverband)	239
	fluvial sediment transport (Fluviatiler Feststofftransport)	3603
	debris-flow-like process (Murartiger Feststofftransport)	766
	flood (Hochwasser)	1976
	surface water (Oberflächenwasser)	16
	shallow landslide (Hangmure)	162
	mud flow (Murgang)	1927
	earth- and debris flow (Erd- Schuttstrom)	31
	rotational slide (Rotationsrutschung)	202
	translational slide (Translationsrutschung)	100
	rock creep (Talzuschub)	2
	landslide (not differentiated) (Rutschung nicht differenziert)	427
GBA	slide (Gleiten/Rutschen)	2201
	flow (Fließen)	104
	falling / toppling (Fallen/Stürzen)	898
	complex large-scale mass movement (Komplexe Großmassenbewegungen)	37
	mass movements (in loose rock) (Massenbewegung im LG)	28
mass movements (general) (Massenbewegungen (allg.))	52	
VIOLA	continuous rainfall (Dauerregen)	337
	heavy rainfall (Starkregen)	2351
	thunderstorm (Gewitter)	2290
	surface water (Oberflächenwasser)	1761
	slide (Gleiten/Rutschen)	665
	flow (Fließen)	656
	falling / toppling (Fallen/Stürzen)	180
heat & drought (Hitze & Dürre)	528	

223 *2.2. Methods*

224 Descriptions of weather phenomena triggering hazard-processes are, as  
225 mentioned already, called ‘Climate Indices’ (CIs). CIs are of multifarious  
226 use: they indicate hazardous weather and thereby help alert inhabitants of  
227 affected areas; they serve as benchmarks for climate-proof construction work;  
228 and they permit the assessment of future vulnerability of e.g. infrastructure,  
229 settlements and traffic routes under climate-change (Matulla et al., 2017a;  
230 Schlögl & Matulla, 2018).

231 Precipitation periods of five or more days, for instance, with overall-totals  
232 larger than 137.3 mm and least one daily sum above 25.6 mm, have been  
233 defined by Guzzetti et al. (2008) as a CI for landslides in the European Alps.

234 So far CIs are based on expert opinion, practical experience, physical  
235 reasoning (e.g. various threshold models), experiments and model consider-  
236 ations, but CIs have not been objectively derived from records by now. This  
237 is for two reasons: (i) detailed knowledge on hazard-events and triggering  
238 weather conditions have to be on hand (let’s call that kind of observation:  
239 ‘hazard-weather’ observation); (ii) many decades of ‘hazard-weather’ obser-  
240 vations are required. Please note, having a large number of these ‘hazard-  
241 weather’ observations available is not sufficient unless these stretch many  
242 decades. This is because (as already elaborated) already three decades are  
243 required for deriving the lowest moments of meteorological elements’ distri-  
244 butions. Thus, much more time is needed to properly assess extremes, far  
245 off the means (e.g. Alexandersson et al., 2000; Barring & von Storch, 2004;  
246 Matulla et al., 2008a).

247 Generally, detailed information on neither hazard-occurrences nor trig-



248 gering weather conditions are available. And its only due to substantial  
249 efforts that – by reviewing scientific literature, blogs, reports by fire fight-  
250 ers, etc. on one hand as well as continued research endeavours in terms  
251 of e.g. weather reconstructions on the other hand - catalogues on damage-  
252 occurrences and knowledge on related weather conditions are usable for  
253 proposing CIs (Guzzetti et al., 1994, 2007; Brunetti et al., 2010; Gariano  
254 et al., 2015).

255 In the following we set out to investigate whether our ‘event space’ and  
256 SPARTACUS allow for the objective determination extreme-weather sequences  
257 triggering damage-processes (i.e. objectively derived CIs). On top of that we  
258 claim that it is possible to objectively identify definite sequences of daily  
259 weather observations that are distinguishable amongst various categories of  
260 floodings and landslides as well as in-between the three above introduced  
261 regions.

262 Please note that this statement is extraordinary. We do not only set  
263 out to (i) objectively identify CIs regarding floodings and landslides, which  
264 has not been done yet. We aim at doing so for (ii) various landslide- and  
265 flooding-categories and we claim them to (iii) exhibit characteristic sequences  
266 of daily precipitation totals, which are (iv) distinguishable amongst hazard  
267 categories as well as (v) in-between regions.

268 This is in fact by no means likely or expectable, because the ‘event space’  
269 generated here is based on cadastres assembled by different authorities and  
270 SPARTACUS results from an international collaboration. Hence, the data  
271 available to us are from various, independent sources. Everybody who had  
272 worked already with datasets from different sources, knows how large differ-

273 ences can be, even if they describe the same e.g. weather element. Here,  
274 SPARTACUS is a meteorological dataset and the ‘event space’ contains  
275 hazard-occurrences and now they linked at different points in time and space  
276 – whenever these is a damage-occurrence. Apart from that, the assumption  
277 (iii) concerning particular successions is not suggested by anything. CIs de-  
278 rived in other studies contain conditions that may or may not be matched.  
279 Landslides in the European Alps, for instance, are triggered by weather phe-  
280 nomena exceeding two threshold in whatever order (see above). So, there is  
281 no need for any order and hence claims (iv) and (v) are obviously even less  
282 reasonable.

283 As such, let us claim there is no detectable difference between succes-  
284 sions of daily precipitation totals inducing different flooding- and landslide-  
285 processes within and in-between the alpine regions considered.

286 Since date and location of each event space element is known, we assign  
287 to it corresponding precipitation totals at its occurrence day (or target-day,  
288 ‘TD’) as well as during the preceding week. Concerning continental Europe,  
289 this complies with a rather common rule of thumb, resulting from studies  
290 reaching back into the 1930s. Baur (1936) and singled out periods of 5-8 days  
291 adequately characterizing changes in predominant weather conditions. Cadez  
292 (1957) observed weather developments over five years in Slovenia and found  
293 three-day periods to predominate. Hess & Brezowsky (1969) investigated a  
294 range of large-scale weather patterns from 1881 to 1998. They confirmed  
295 three-day cycles as well as periods extending from five to seven days to carry  
296 much significance. Ehrendorfer (1987) identifies 3 to 7 days signifying dura-  
297 tion and change of large-scale weather characteristics over Central Europe.

298 Since we are not only interested in currently dominating weather, but also  
 299 in conditions preceding their arrival, periods of 8 days are considered here.  
 300 The considered 8-day sequence-length covers the mean climate weather's re-  
 301 tention time and well enough the threat-process' development history (e.g.  
 302 Matulla et al., 2008b). In our analyses we regard for every hazard-occurrence  
 303 8-day total-sequences averaged over the closest SPARTACUS grid-point and  
 304 its four neighbors. That means, we have 'hazard-weather' observations (see  
 305 above) over seven decades available. For all event space elements of one cat-  
 306 egory ( $N$  events), we set up a  $8 \times N$  matrix  $O$  of observations. The central  
 307 question now arising is: 'Are there characteristic patterns to the sequences  
 308 towards target day or are the totals arbitrarily distributed?'. The answer  
 309 depends on the symmetric tensor  $OO'$  (i.e.  $O$  times  $O$ -transpose), since its  
 310 eigen-directions (resulting from the secular equation) are the sought total-  
 311 sequences (CIs). Hence, we can address the above hypothesis by analysing  
 312 and depicting them (see Figs. 2 – 7).

313 The theory of second order symmetric tensors is identical to those of  
 314 quadratic forms (Duschek & Hochrainer, 1946), which in physics generally  
 315 represent energy expressions, e.g. potential and kinetic energy in mechan-  
 316 ics; deformation-work in statics; magnetic and electric energy in electrotech-  
 317 nology (Zurmühl, 1950). The second order, symmetric tensor  $OO'$  and its  
 318 mathematically-inherent form contains all weather observations (in terms of  
 319 total-sequences) preceding considered hazard-events ('hazard-weather' ob-  
 320 servations) and thereby all physics recorded at this linkage.

321 Now form, tensor and eigen-directions are canonically linked: on one hand  
 322 eigen-directions are invariant under tensor operations and on the other hand,

323 taken as basis they display form and tensor in their main axis and diagonal  
324 representation. The eigen-directions are in our context the canonical total-  
325 sequences.

326 It is worth noting that the canonical total-sequences shown in Figs. 2–7  
327 result from an analysis in meteorology and several other applied fields called  
328 Empirical Orthogonal Function Analysis (EOF, e.g. von Storch & Zwiers  
329 (1999)) a multivariate statistical analysis tool of great use in applications,  
330 especially when dealing with incomplete, inaccurate data.

331 Amongst the most prominent EOF applications is perhaps that of succes-  
332 sively observed surface level air-pressure ‘SLP’ across the North Atlantic and  
333 Europe. There the analysis yields pattern ‘EOFs’, which together with their  
334 ‘temporal coefficients’ (aka PCs, e.g. Preisendorfer et al., 1988) represent  
335 the atmosphere’s dynamic (North Atlantic Oszillation, Trenberth & Paolino,  
336 1981). The first EOF of SLP over the Northern Hemisphere, the ‘Arctic Os-  
337 cillation’ and its dynamics is perhaps even better known (Kutzbach, 1970;  
338 Hurrell, 1995).

339 With an EOF analysis one achieves two important goals at once: (i)  
340 the physics observed through EOFs and their time-coefficients (PCs) as well  
341 as (ii) avoidance of erroneous information by disregarding small eigenvalues  
342 (EVs). For these features the EOF analysis is popular. Both of them result  
343 from the EOFs’ orthogonality.

344 In textbooks EOFs are usually introduced by explicit construction, be-  
345 cause it only requires very basic skills in mathematics that way (e.g. Peixoto  
346 & Oort, 1992; von Storch & Navarra, 1999; Zorita & von Storch, 1999). That  
347 is perfectly all right, but makes some readers believe EOFs’ orthogonality,

348 which is used in this construction is arbitrary. And *that* is wrong. In fact,  
349 the pattern's orthogonality is mathematically inherent since  $OO'$  is a sym-  
350 metric, second order tensor (identical theory to euclidean geometry, which  
351 we obviously use to observe, to measure objects) (Duschek & Hochrainer,  
352 1950; Duschek, 1963).

### 353 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 354 *3.1. Compilation of the 'event space'*

355 In this section we follow the steps carried out towards the compilation  
356 of the 'event space' and shortly point out its main features that are on the  
357 one hand inherited from the authorities' cadastres (introduced above) and  
358 generated on the other hand by means of their aggregation. Amongst the  
359 significant features taken over from the cadastres three stand out: the period  
360 covered (i.e. about seven decades from 1950 onwards); the regions and their  
361 spatial extent that are to be supervised by the authorities for their legal  
362 obligations and the equivalence of the hazards-processes to be monitored to  
363 acquire their targets.

364 Ultimately, it is the combination of these traits allowing all results pre-  
365 sented here. And these, in turn, are of importance for decision-makers re-  
366 alizing sustainable civil-protection strategies geared to climate driven chal-  
367 lenges induced by changing hazard- frequencies and intensities throughout  
368 the decades to come until 2100.

369 All findings achieved here depend on their comprehensive content extend-  
370 ing over seven decades. These results could not have been derived from data  
371 that only began in the 2000s when climate-change was already known and

372 altered extreme-events became popular. These data are too short.

373 The technical challenges of compiling the ‘event space’ have not been any  
374 different than they are in general – known to all involved in the merging of in-  
375 formation from different sources (data formats, arrangement of information,  
376 etc.). The only general lesson is the indispensability of patience, continuous  
377 inquiring, accuracy and dedication.

378 However, it is worth mentioning that the classification (‘processes’ in  
379 Tab. 1) used by the authorities to accomplish their legal tasks have been in-  
380 troduced thoughtfully such that they split internationally common categories  
381 (c.f. Heiser et al., 2015) or allow for their straightforward assignment to these.  
382 Hence, there was no complication to be experienced in this regard. Tab. 2  
383 shows internationally common categories and how pertaining events are dis-  
384 tributed over the above introduced orographical distinct provinces (Fig. 1).  
385 *Floodings*, to begin with, are made up by WLW’s *fluvatile sediment transport*,  
386 *debris-flow like transport*, *floods* and VIOLA’s *continuous rain*. *Flash floods*  
387 combines VIOLA’s *surface water*, *heavy precipitation events* and *thunder-*  
388 *storms* with WLW’s *surface water*. *Slides* aggregates WLW’s sub-categories  
389 *rotational slides* and *translational slides* as well as GBA’s and VIOLA’s cor-  
390 respondences (i.e. *slides*). *Flows* contains GBA’s and VIOLA’s equivalents  
391 (i.e. *flows*) as well as WLW’s *mud flows*, *shallow landslides* and *earth- and*  
392 *debris-flows* reflecting just a further distinction. *Falls* consists of GBA’s  
393 and VIOLA’s *falls* as well as WLW’s *individual blocks* and *large blocks*, while  
394 finally category *Others* acts as a reservoir for sparsely occupied and undif-  
395 ferentiated processes.

396 The above described integration of the three most extensive national

397 damage-process databases (WLV, GBA, VIOLA), which is accomplished here  
398 for the first time results in an ‘event space’ made up of internationally used  
399 categories (e.g. Varnes, 1978; Hungr et al., 2001, 2013). This ‘event space’  
400 provides an unprecedented scope of hazard-processes (i.e. about 20.000 occur-  
401 rences) in terms of *Floodings*, *Flash Floods*, *Slides*, *Flows* and *Falls*, covering  
402 a significant part of the European Alps. The captured outstanding extent of  
403 events does not only allow for the examination of weather-sequences driving  
404 floodings and landslides, but to do so in their various appearances mentioned  
405 above as well as in the three regions (see Fig. 1).

### 406 3.2. Derivation of CIs

407 Throughout the past seven decades several thousand hazard events have  
408 been recorded within each region and every category. Based on this statisti-  
409 cally robust set up, we investigate temporal total-sequences extending over  
410 eight days (including the ‘target-day’) preceding hazard occurrences.

411 Figures 2 through 7 below refer to *Floodings*, *Slides* and *Flash Floods* for  
412 different regions. These are presented in a standardized layout: their upper  
413 rows depict (from left to right) (1) share of variances explained, displayed  
414 in a ‘scree-plot’ (Compagnucci & Salles, 1997; Horn, 1965), (2) the fraction  
415 of hazard-occurrences recorded in this region and finally (3) the distribu-  
416 tion of totals accumulating over the 8-day sequences. The figures’ bottom  
417 line illustrates (from left to right) the three leading EOFs’ temporal pat-  
418 tern (i.e. the canonical transformation’s temporal total-sequences triggering  
419 damage-processes). The color of the Figures’ frames correspond to the region  
420 investigated, as can be seen in Figure 1.

421 Note that the scree plot refers to the fraction of physics (contained in

Table 2: Overview of processes contained in the categories *Flash Floods* (6311 events), *Floodings* (6241), *Slides* (3006), *Flows* (2600), *Falls* (1223) and *Others* (625) and their distribution across the Alpine Territory, the Northern Lowlands and the Southern Basin Chain. Please note that the Categories are capitalized.

Category	processes	region
<b>Floodings</b>	floods (WLV), fluvial sediment transport (WLV),	AT: 78 %
	debris-flow-like processes (WLV), continuous rain	NL: 11 %
	(VIOLA)	SB: 11 %
<b>Flash Flood</b>	surface water(WLV & VIOLA), heavy precipita-	AT: 47 %
	tion events (VIOLA), thunderstorms (VIOLA)	NL: 29 %
		SB: 24 %
<b>Slides</b>	slides (GBA & VIOLA), rotational slides (WLV),	AT: 65 %
	translational slides (WLV)	NL: 13 %
		SB: 22 %
<b>Flows</b>	flows (GBA & VIOLA), shallow landslides (WLV),	AT: 93 %
	earth- and debris flows (WLV), mudflows (WLV)	NL: 3 %
		SB: 4 %
<b>Falls</b>	falls (GBA & VIOLA), individual blocks (WLV),	AT: 79 %
	large blocks (WLV)	NL: 10 %
		SB: 11 %
<b>Others</b>	landslides (not differentiated) (WLV), complex	AT: 65 %
	large-scale mass movements (GBA), mass move-	NL: 15 %
	ments (in loose rock) (GBA), mass movement (gen-	SB: 20 %
	eral) (GBA), rock creep (WLV)	



422 all observed precipitation processes) represented by their EOF-pattern. A  
423 gap between the values corresponding to EOFs of increasing number or a  
424 change in the course indicates the appropriate number of EOFs to retain  
425 in the subsequent analyses. While there are in fact a number of criteria  
426 for deciding the number of EOFs used to capture the signal from the rest  
427 containing noise, we decided by scree-plots to retain three EOFs in each  
428 shown case.

429 The results for *Floodings* in the Northern Lowlands (666 events, Fig. 2)  
430 and in the Alpine Territory (4884 events, Fig. 3) display a clearly visible dif-  
431 ference between the most frequently attained sequence-total (first row, right-  
432 most panel) between the alpine topography and the northern plains. While  
433 this value reaches 30 mm in NL, the corresponding amount in AT is 25 mm.  
434 This seem to match with expectations related to the regions' distinct orog-  
435 raphy and thus pertaining catchment area sizes.

436 Concerning the explained variances of the leading EOFs, there is no signif-  
437 icant difference between the regions (40 % and 42 %). However, the patterns  
438 themselves differ obviously. *Floodings* in NL are triggered by sequences ex-  
439 hibiting a steep increase in daily totals from TD-2 until process-occurrence.  
440 In contrast, AT's leading precipitation totals are starting a continuous rise  
441 from TD-4 until TD-1 followed by a slight decrease at the target day. The  
442 course of the second leading patterns – 23 % and 31 % for the corresponding  
443 explained variances, respectively – somehow reverses that of the first and  
444 come with clearly larger daily sums from the sequences' beginning up to TD-  
445 3. The explained variances (14 % and 10 %) pertaining to the third canonical  
446 total-sequences, triggering *Floodings*, make up already only a quarter of those

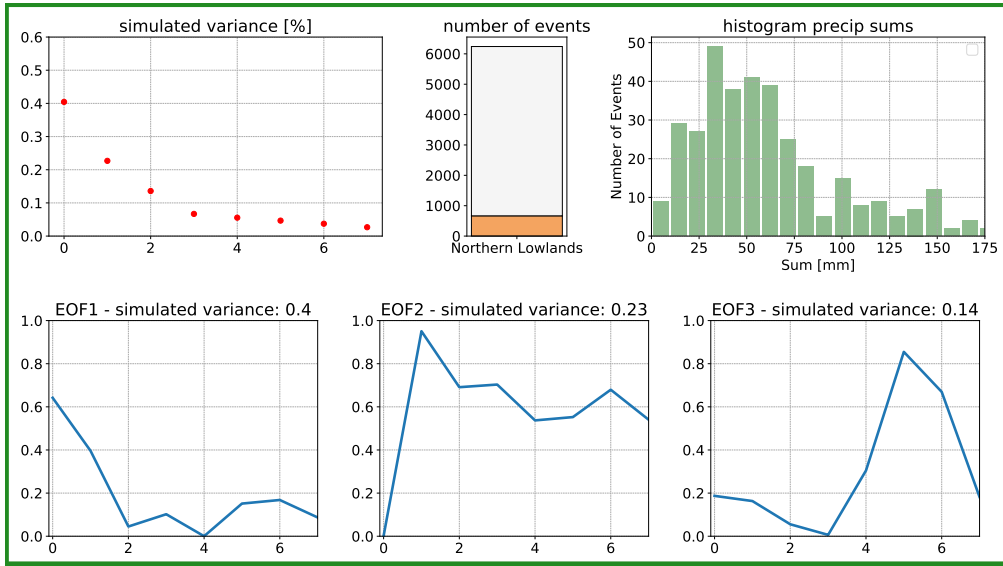


Figure 2: Triggering precipitation characteristics of *Floodings* in the Northern Lowlands.\*

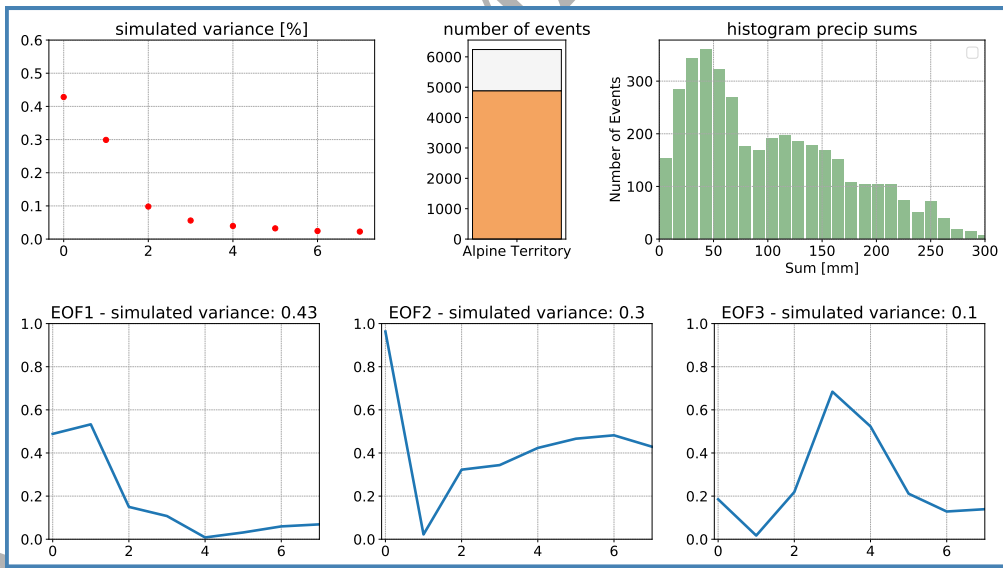


Figure 3: Triggering precipitation characteristics of *Floodings* in the Alpine Territory.\*

\* Note: Please find a comprehensive explanation detailing the content of all panels in the text.

447 associated with the first and, hence, carry accordingly less importance. How-  
448 ever, unlike above discussed EOFs, their runs highlight the first half of the  
449 sequences towards TD, whereby NL's has its maximum sum on TD-5 and  
450 AT's on TD-3. This may be related to rather different sizes of the regions'  
451 catchment areas. The captured behavior of *Floodings* in the Southern Basin  
452 Chain (SB, not shown) is much alike with the one obtained for NL.

453 Figures 4 and 7 depict findings for *Slides* in the Southern Basin Chain  
454 (392 events) and across the Alpine Territory (1706 events). Slides gener-  
455 ally happen in open terrain and tear-off particularly along edges like those  
456 brought by forest roads, favoring infiltration processes.

457 The explained variances of the leading sequences are rather different,  
458 showing values of 34 % and 58 %. Their courses of daily sums, on the other  
459 hand, share some similarities in terms of overall appearances. These are:  
460 reaching their maximum sums at TD-1 and generally rising totals towards  
461 them as well as decline afterwards. This indicates a one-day time-lag between  
462 weather-development and the thereby initiated hazard-process, that is related  
463 to the soil moisture. This phenomenon is sometimes referred to as a 'delayed  
464 reaction', as opposed to an instantly triggered slide directly caused by high  
465 rainfall intensity.

466 Second EOFs exhibit explained variances of 18 % and 21 % in SB and AT,  
467 respectively. Developments of totals are in both cases different from those  
468 just mentioned. Here, precipitation sums take on their minima one and two  
469 days prior the event in SB and AT, while both attain their maxima at TD  
470 itself – i.e. 'instant trigger' in experts' terms. The difference between 'instant'  
471 and 'delayed' hazard initiation may arise from geological conditions as well

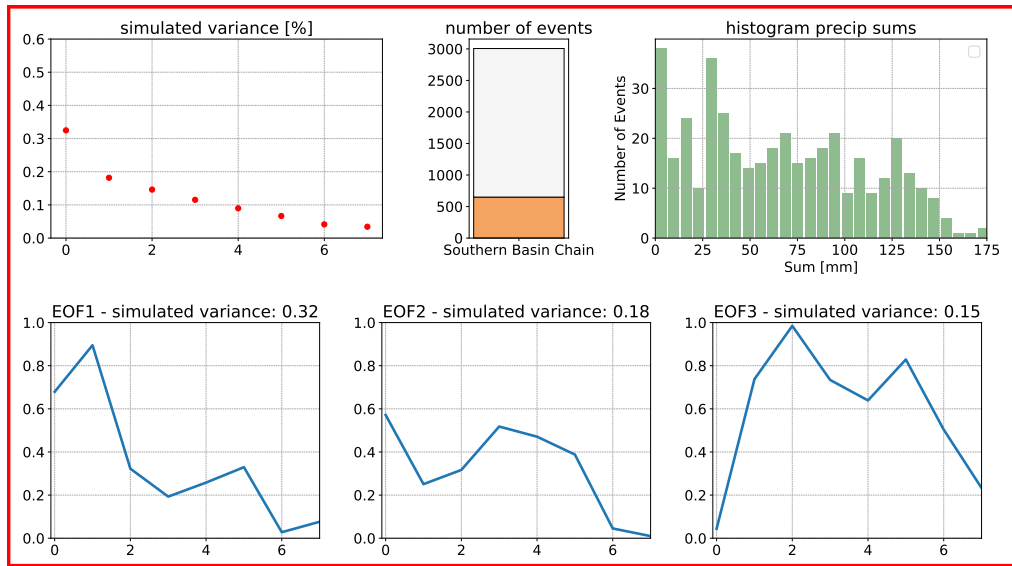


Figure 4: Triggering precipitation characteristics of slides in the Southern Basin Chain.\*

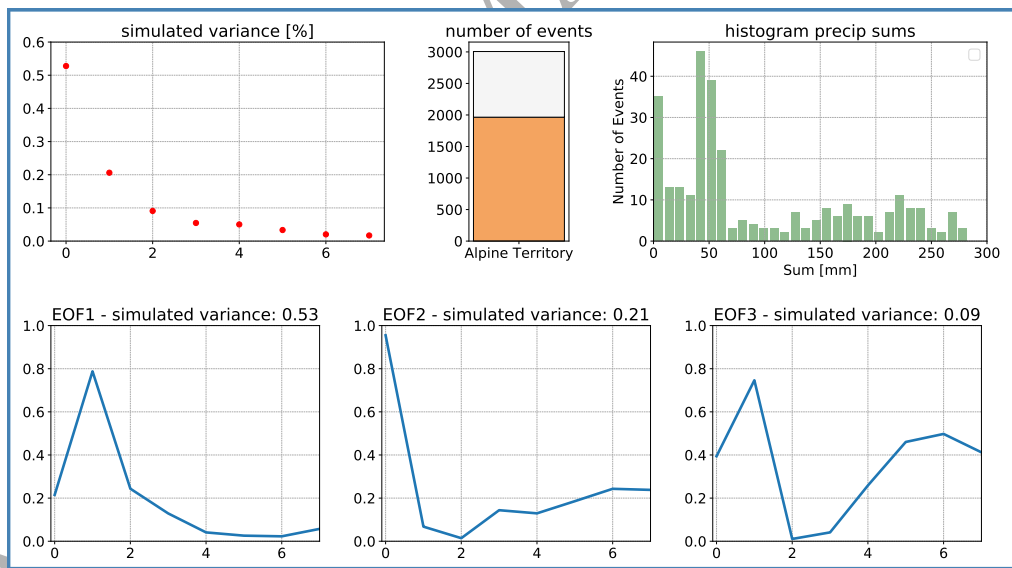


Figure 5: Triggering precipitation characteristics of slides in the Alpine Territory.\*

\* Note: Please find a comprehensive explanation detailing the content of all panels in the text.

472 as differences in the water saturation of the soil. In this context ‘instant’ and  
473 ‘delayed’ slides ought to be anticipated with Flysch and calcareous substrate.

474 Large totals reached from TD-3 backwards may highlight the importance  
475 of infiltration and saturation processes, acting as prerequisites of slides.  
476 This characteristic also stands out in case of the third patterns, featur-  
477 ing explained variances of 13% and 9%, respectively. Sufficient moisture-  
478 penetration slowly propagates towards sliding layers in all sliding processes.  
479 Generally, slides occur delayed when penetration has reached so-called ‘crit-  
480 ical depths’, which depend on the actual slide-mightiness.

481 Total-sequences in the Northern Lowlands share obvious similarity with  
482 those of SB just mentioned.

483 Figures 6 and 7 refer to results of category *Flash Floods* within the North-  
484 ern Lowlands (1816 events) and the Alpine Territory (2297 events). The first  
485 patterns, having sudden and pronounced maxima on TD, mirror the defini-  
486 tion of *Flash Floods* (Merz & Blöschl; Nied et al., 2014). In NL, however,  
487 the explained variance is considerably larger than that of AT (40% versus  
488 56%).

489 Second EOFs (22% for NL and 13% in AT) again reverse the temporal  
490 order of minimum and maximum totals compared to the leading sequences.  
491 Apart from that, AT’s pattern attains the largest daily sum on TD-1 whereas  
492 in NL on TD-2. This was already the case for *Floodings* such as the fact that  
493 they come with larger daily sums until TD-1. Unlike in all other cases shown,  
494 third total-sequences show reflected behaviour in-between the regions. Sums  
495 in NL show an overall increase up to TD-1 whereas AT’s pattern features  
496 rather large totals from the beginning until TD-2, followed by its minimum

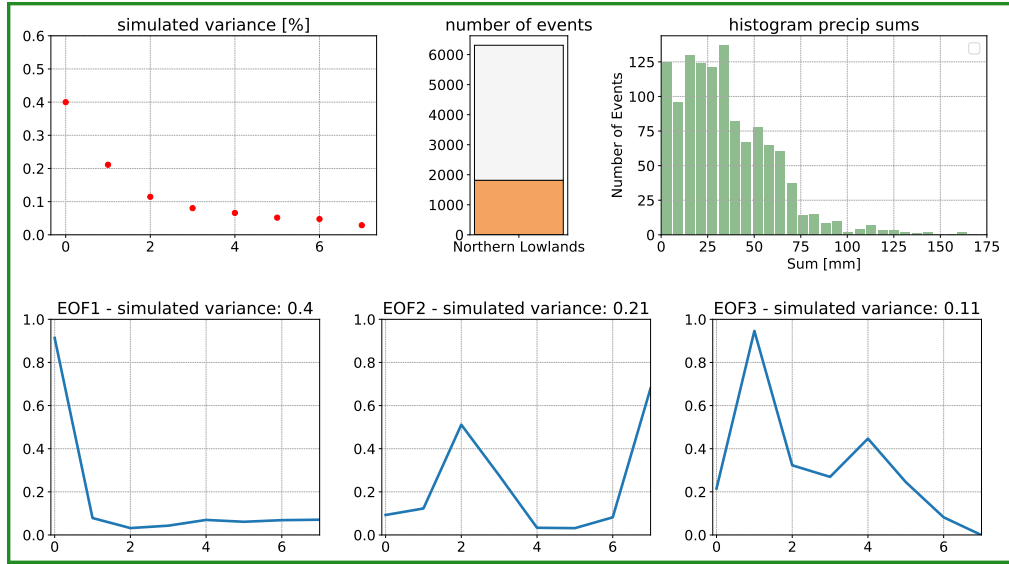


Figure 6: Triggering precipitation characteristics of flash floods in the Northern Lowlands.\*

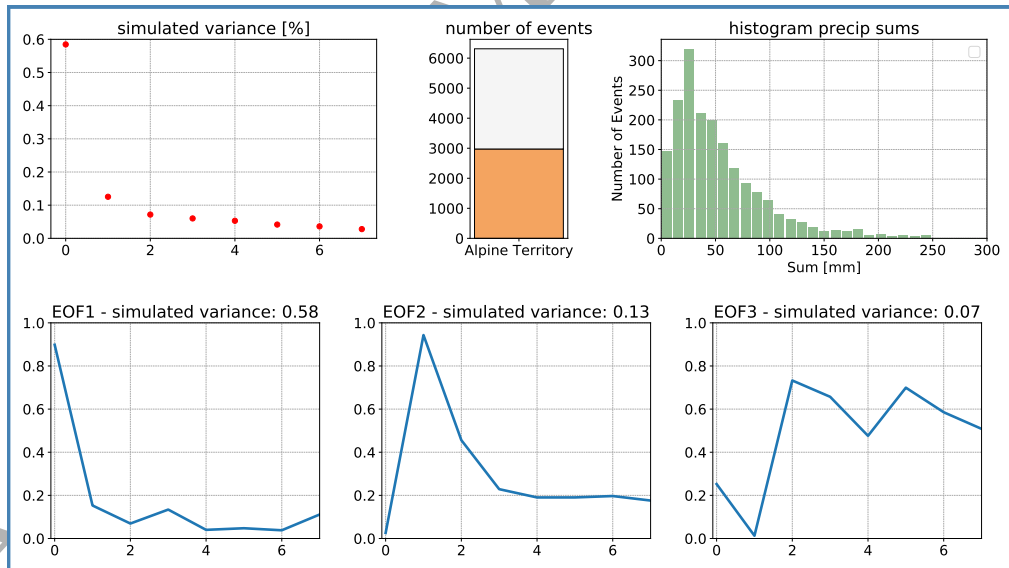


Figure 7: Triggering precipitation characteristics of flash floods in the Alpine Territory.\*

\* Note: Please find a comprehensive explanation detailing the content of all panels in the text.

497 and somewhat more precipitation on TD. The relative gap between the ex-  
498 plained variances stays approximately the same as that before. Results for  
499 *Flash Flood* in the Southern Basin Chain show close resemblance to those in  
500 the Alpine Territory.

501 The main statement of the whole study standing out from all examina-  
502 tions and analyses is the significance and uniqueness of total-sequences tied  
503 to each single hazard-category-region pairing (totaling up to 18 CIs: three re-  
504 gions with four and two categories for landslides and floodings, respectively).

505 As such our hypothesis, related to the question whether it is possible or  
506 not to derive characteristic total-sequences (CIs) for various hazard-categories  
507 prior threat-occurrence, may therefore be decided. The claim there is no  
508 detectable difference between successions of daily total-sequences either in-  
509 ducing the same hazard (floodings and landslides in various categories) in  
510 topographically distinct regions or triggering different hazards within the  
511 same region, has to be rejected.

512 So, the ‘event space’ generated and the eigen-directions of our quadratic  
513 form comprising the physics through all observations, allow to objectively  
514 determine canonical CIs (total-sequences) triggering damage-processes.

515 The validity of the region-specific CIs despite their inner variability (due  
516 to their geological, physiographical and geomorphological conditions, land-  
517 cover and soil types etc.) reveals its subsidiary status. The validity of the  
518 hazard-sensitive CIs in-between regions and on the other hand illustrates  
519 their statistical robustness.

520 It is perhaps worth mentioning that none of our findings here contradict  
521 or render obsolete already established CIs. The current outcomes only add

522 to the research achievements of those, for instance, discussed throughout this  
523 paper as well as (Caine, 1980; Martelloni et al., 2012), who managed to con-  
524 tinuously improve landslide threshold levels in various regions across Italy by  
525 enlarging the body of rainfall-landslides information and enhancing analysis-  
526 techniques. These endeavors are highly relevant in terms of public protection  
527 for instance, because landslides perpetrate substantial economic losses and  
528 high numbers of fatalities. In terms of floodings, which are addressed here  
529 too, the accurate estimation of extreme-precipitation totals and the proper  
530 simulation of their effects are decisively contributing to civil protection as  
531 well (Scofield & Kuligowski, 2003; Papaioannou et al., 2018).

532 Results derived in this study are to be used by responsible decision-makers  
533 for the purpose of public protection as well as safeguarding critical infras-  
534 tructure. Together with ensembles of downscaled climate change projections  
535 driven by different pathways of mankind, they serve as cornerstone for sus-  
536 tainable strategies assembling bundles of protection measures (that are to  
537 be effective, modularly extendable, combinable with structures already in  
538 effect and cheap to maintain). Aside from their importance for establishing  
539 sustainable protection strategies, they are subject to close collaboration with  
540 European Freight and Logistics Leaders Forum's members in order to secure  
541 their business.

#### 542 **4. Outlook**

543 Future work will focus on the application of CIs to empirically-statistically  
544 as well as dynamically downscaled ensembles of climate change projections  
545 driven by various pathways of mankind. This shall enable decision-makers in



546 charge to develop sustainable strategies for e.g. public protection and safe-  
547 guarding critical infrastructure geared to future climate conditions expected  
548 throughout the decades to come. Other goals worth to attain refer to case  
549 studies focusing on subsidiary effects, to differentiate between seasons and  
550 to investigate whether the actual extent of landslides reveal geomorpholog-  
551 ical fingerprints and can be allocated to rapid or delayed initiation. Aside  
552 from these aims we set out together with those in charge integrating find-  
553 ings into early warning systems as CIs derived in this study exhibit daily  
554 resolution, stretch a period of 8 days and are characteristic for combinations  
555 of hazard-process and region (AT, NL, SB). Thus, operationally observed  
556 weather developments, may be continuously compared to CIs without any  
557 additional effort. In case evolutions match them after e.g. 5 days enhanced  
558 alertness and appropriate preparation protocols may be brought into effect.  
559 Such precautions can buy time when time is most critical.

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